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it must be in view of the scattered nature of the references to water falls in the literature, and in view of our still imperfect knowledge of the mountainous portions of several continents—nevertheless I venture to offer here a few facts and figures that may be of interest in this connection. If more accurate data are available, it is hoped that this note will be instrumental in inducing others to bring them forth.

The Kaieteur Falls, which are reported to be 804 feet high, are probably the highest of their particular class—the class of broad, voluminous cataracts to which the Niagara Falls, the Victoria Falls and several others belong. The Wooloomumbi, on a branch of Macleay River, Australia, is about 900 feet high, but its volume is so much smaller that it scarcely belongs in this class.

The highest water falls in the world are of the slender "bridal veil" type. Among them the Yosemite Falls appear to stand foremost. The entire chain of falls and eascades which the waters of Yosemite Creek make in their descent from the upland to the floor of the Yosemite Valley is 2,565 feet high. The individual measurements are: upper fall, 1,430 feet; intermediate cascade, 815 feet; lower fall, 320 feet.

However, it may be questioned whether it is fair, in making comparisons with other water falls, to consider the two Yosemite Falls and their connecting cascades as forming together a single unit. Those who would champion the claim to first place of some other noble water fall—and there is no little pride, national, state and local, involved in this matter-might perhaps properly object to such procedure. For the cascades between the upper and lower Yosemite Falls, however beautiful they may be, consist only of small drops, chutes and rapids, and their descent of 815 feet is distributed over a horizontal distance of about 2,000 feet. There are elsewhere many other cascades of a similar kind that are not generally considered worthy of being classed as water falls.

It is to be noted, however, that, even if the point be conceded and the cascades be ruled out, the upper Yosemite Fall, taken by itself, still remains far in the lead as the highest single, unbroken leap of water in the world.

This leap measures 1,360 feet in height.

There is, so far as I can ascertain, only one water fall that exceeds the upper Yosemite in height—the Sutherland Fall, in New Zealand. It measures 1,904 feet in height but it is broken about midway by projecting ledges and makes no clear leap of more than 900 feet. The falls of Gavarnie, in the Pyrenees, are, according to some authorities, 1,385 feet high, but they consist of braided streamlets that slide down the seams of an irregularly sculptured cliff and do not fall clear through any notable height.

It seems to me that it would be a matter of no little satisfaction to American geographers—and, indeed, to all American citizens who take pride in the great natural features of their country—if the question of the highest water fall could be definitely settled, and I, therefore, wish to express the hope that others who may have reliable data on this subject will consent to make them known. Personally, I should feel greatly indebted for any information they may be willing to supply.

F. E. MATTHES

U. S. GEOLOGICAL SURVEY, WASHINGTON, D. C.

A CABINET FOR COLORED PAPERS

Facilities for storing the stock of large sheets of colored papers in the psychological laboratory usually fall considerably short of the technical requirements. This is true of all papers that have been surfaced on one side for use in chromatic or achromatic comparisons and more specifically for working out color equations. Such papers should be readily accessible for selection, should therefore be arranged in relatively short series, and should be properly classified and indexed. To these ends it is customary to store the papers in a vertical cabinet built up of some two dozen shallow drawers of suitable dimensions.

On account of the unequal treatment of the two surfaces these papers have a tendency to curl upward. In almost any arrangement of drawers this will lead to tearing, rolling up and final destruction of some of the material in the cabinet. It is a particularly common occurrence in cabinets built to accommodate papers with the short side toward the front and constructed without partitions between the draw-

ers. What psychologist has not experienced some form of emotion when he has envisaged the pile of trash and supertrash accumulated behind the drawers at the periodical laboratory housecleaning festivity! The affective experience of the conscientious director of the laboratory is further embellished by the knowledge that this trash is expensive to replace and wasteful of energy and time spent in reorganizing the contents of the cabinet.

In an earlier attempt to prevent mutilation of papers in this wise a cardboard of medium weight was placed in each drawer on top of the papers. Instructions printed in bold characters advised students and others to replace it before closing the drawer. But since failure to heed the advice did not entail consequences similar to the infraction of a natural law, treatment of the situation by suggestion was unsuccessful. The next step was to tack a piece of cardboard over the back of the drawer and reaching forward about eight or ten inches. While this device proved to be a great help, it did not prevent catching and rolling back at the front of the drawer when it was pulled out.

The best solution of the difficulty seems to lie in a very simple arrangement which if embodied in the original construction of a cabinet ought to be less expensive than a case of drawers, but it can also be installed where drawers are already in use. In the simpler plan the drawers are slides that fit into grooves at the side of the cabinet and are made with strips $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches high at the front and a trifle lower at the back, but affording ample room for the standard-sized sheets. On each slide a heavy cardboard cover is hinged at the back with heavy binder's cloth over the top of the strip and is cut large enough to fall just within the front strip or face of the slide. A leather "pull" or flap by means of which the cover can be readily lifted is fastened to it near the front. The apparent inconvenience of having to pull the drawer almost entirely out before the cover can be sufficiently lifted to extract the papers is more of an advantage than a hindrance in view of the well-known fact that most of the untidiness of cabinets is due to the careless extraction and introduction of papers

with drawers insufficiently opened. Papers that lie beneath are thereby frequently pulled or pushed back and crumpled up. If the cabinet were constructed so that the grooves at the sides extended six inches or more, or in other words if the sides of the cabinet were built six or more inches wider than the depth of the slides, the slides could be held in place while the covers were lifted and the papers handled, provided that the remaining slides were always systematically returned to their full extent.

A neat and carefully arranged "color cabinet" is always an asset to the well-appointed laboratory and there seems to be no reason why we should not begin at this point to inculcate the ideals of order and system in the minds of our young scientists and at the same time to increase the efficiency of the laboratory according to those standards for which the newer generation is so valiantly fighting!

CHRISTIAN A. RUCKMICK WELLESLEY COLLEGE

THE HUMAN YOLK SAC

Some time ago there came under my observation two specimens of early human twins, both of which showed a direct developmental relation to single yolk sacs. For record I published a brief note¹ announcing the discovery of this important condition and emphasizing the single-ovum origin which it implies; in addition were appended several deductions or speculations of secondary importance. In a recent issue² of this journal Professor F. T. Lewis has raised certain objections which demand consideration that the intent of my former condensed account be not misunderstood.

The second specimen described in that publication had a single yolk sac and yolk stalk connected to one embryo of the twin pair; the other embryo lacked both stalk and sac. Professor Lewis believes this indicates the early obliteration of one of the originally paired stalks. My interpretation was that an early unequal division of the embryonic mass had left

¹ Anatomical Record, Vol. 23, pp. 245-251.

² Science, Vol. 55, p. 478.